

was as the idle wind. There could be but one ruler, the Most High God, and exultation or despair were alike impossible. He was the oldest, perhaps the noblest, of a class who will yet grow for ever the tone of our rule, and the characteristics of our rulers.

One word more. The death of General Havelock is the last in a series each of which has given a momentary shock to public confidence. Doubtless the feeling is natural, and every such death involves an almost irreparable loss. But there is no reason for depression. England lost many Generals before she discovered Wellington. If every soldier now in India, every General now known to Englishmen were slain, victory would none the less be ultimately secured. It is not on this or that General, however able or however necessary, that the British Empire in India can be sustained. It has been founded, and preserved in the teeth of reason, experience, and strength by a hand mightier than that of any General, a will stronger than that of any nation. When that hand is withdrawn, and that will ceases to be immutable, then, and not till then, will there be reason even for a doubt.

THE EXILED NEGROES IN CANADA.

The *New York Tribune* has sent a special commissioner to report upon the condition of the exiled negroes in Canada, and obtain statistics of education, health, and crime amongst them. We extract from the letters of the commissioner the following interesting account of the negro settlement at Buxton:

One of the most interesting places visited in the course of our inquiries was the colony at Buxton. About nine years ago, the Rev. William King, an Irish Presbyterian clergyman, residing at the time in Louisiana, and owning several slaves, servants of his family, and having through his wife become possessed of a number of negroes, thought it his duty to go to Canada, and there emancipate them. Not content with this, and desirous to try, on a sufficient scale, the question whether the emancipated negro would, as an agriculturist, be found self-supporting, and burning to improve the moral and social condition of the negro, Mr. King became the head and moving spirit of an association, which obtained, on favourable terms, a large grant of lands, belonging originally to the clergy reserves. The land, forming a tract six miles long by three miles wide, was surveyed, cut through by avenues intersecting each other at right angles, and divided into plots of five acres each, each plot fronting upon one of the avenues. The expenses of surveying, added to the original price of the land, made its cost amount to 2 dollars per acre. The ground was level, maple, hickory, and oak, hickory, beech, elm, maple, and basswood, and the virgin soil was a deep, rich, and black loam. To this place, the negroes were invited, to try the grand experiment; each applicant was to receive a farm, not as a gratuity, but paying for it the full cost price in ten annual instalments, with interest added. He bound himself at the same time, within a given period, to put up a house upon his land, conforming to a prescribed model; he was to furnish his own farming tools and implements, and to support himself and family. Only when these conditions were complied with, and the land paid for, was he to receive his deed. A school-house, teachers, and tuition were furnished gratuitously; a Sabbath-school was established; and a rude log church, in which Mr. King himself officiated, was erected, and was open to all who might choose to attend public worship in it. Such is an outline of the plan of the settlement of the Elgin Association at Buxton, and at the end of seven years from the date of its origin that settlement numbers 200 families and about 800 souls.

Buxton is about 13 miles south-west from Chatham, and is about three miles distant from the shore of Lake Erie. Having procured a conveyance, we set out to visit it, under the guidance of the son of a warmhearted Irishman, whose Quaker education only gave point to the impulsive and genial spirit of his countrymen. For the first seven miles the road was admirable, but was bordered for the most part, even in the immediate vicinity of the town, by the primeval forest, the land being held in large tracts by those who had bought it to hold for higher prices. As we turned off toward Buxton, the road became worse, being a good deal broken into holes, which, in bad weather, must have been nearly impassable; on either side, however, there were well-improved farms. On the way we frequently met with blacks from the settlement—sometimes a large wagon full of men and women, with a good two-horse team; sometimes in a rickety affair, drawn by a single horse; and one black woman on horseback, with a boy of eleven or twelve years of age behind her. There was a quarterly meeting of the Methodists in session, and they were on the way to attend to it. As we approached the settlement the neighbourhood became more populous, and we saw frequent cabins, which we took to form part of it. Inquiring the way, we were shown a little church as a guide, and driving by it, we found ourselves within the domain.

The house of Mr. King is a long log-house, with a high steep roof and dormer windows, and a porch extending the whole length of the building; interiorly, it is divided by transverse partitions into number of rooms, which serve as office, sitting-room, dining room, &c. Everything was perfectly plain, but neat and substantial. Not far from the house are the little mission church, already mentioned, all built of unburnt logs, while at some little distance are a steam saw mill, a brickyard, a pearlshell factory, with blacksmith, carpenter, and shoe shop, and the country store for the settlement. Fortunately we found the Rev. Mr. King at home and disengaged, a strongly-built, middle sized and middle aged man, of dark complexion, with a full square head and a homely countenance, indicative at once of kindness and sagacity. From him we learned that there were now at the settlement 280 families, each occupying their own house, and numbering in all about 800 souls. Of the land, 1025 acres were cleared and under fence, beside 300 acres, on which the trees had been felled, and were ready for burning, and which would be under cultivation the ensuing spring. Of the land already fenced 354 acres were planted with corn, which already, at the time of my visit, was safe from the frost, and promised more than average crop; 200 acres had been planted with wheat; 70 with oats, 80 with potatoes, and 120 with other crops, such as beans, peas, turnips, and grass. There are owned by the settlers 300 cows, 80 oxen, 300 hogs, and 52 horses; there are likewise a few sheep, but they have not done well, and the experience of the community has been favourable to sheep raising.

There are now two schools at Buxton—a male and female, the latter established within that year for the purpose of teaching the children sewing, as well as those that might wish it the higher branches of female education. The number enrolled in both schools was, during the past year, 140, and the average attendance 58. Hitherto these schools have been gratuitous, but in conformity with the original idea of making the whole establishment self-supporting, a small payment will henceforth be required. A Sabbath-school, kept open on every Sabbath during the year, is attended by 112 pupils, and the average attendance is 52. Mr. King is a Director of the Elgin Association, and as such has a general superintendence over the temporal affairs of the Association; but his office is chiefly advisory, the colonists, so long as they conform to the rules of the Association in regard to their buildings and fences, being left to their own discretion. He is likewise a missionary of the Presbyterian Church of Canada, and in that capacity officiates in the Mission Church on the settlement. The negroes, for the greater part, belong to the Baptist and Methodist persuasions; and while Mr. K.'s personal influence has brought a full attendance to his own little church, many of the negroes maintain their former religious connections. About one quarter of the whole number do not attend church at all, and no compulsion is used. No intoxicating liquor is made or sold within the settlement; drunkenness is unknown there, and since its first formation but one person connected with it has been arrested for a violation of the laws. No case of bastardy has hitherto occurred; the general moral standard of the community is high, and the social improvement is marked and manifest.

The settlers are for the most part fugitive slaves, and of the whole number about one-third are of pure African descent. If Mr. King be right in this, the proportion of blacks is, I think, much greater than in the province at large. Those of them who have been accustomed to farming and have had some capital to commence with, have done exceedingly well, having cleared more land and made greater improvements than the great majority of white settlers in the same or similar circumstances. Those who have brought neither skill nor capital have had a much more difficult task, but even these have so far either paid up their instalments regularly, or when they have passed them, it has been by permission, the money being laid out upon the land, so as to render future payment easier. Many have already paid in full for their farms, and received the deeds, others are prepared to do so in the coming year, and Mr. K. is confident that at the expiration of the ten years all will have come into full possession of their lands.

Two settlements of Europeans have been formed in Canada under Government direction, one of Highlanders at New-Orange, north of Toronto, another of mixed Irish, English, and Scotch emigrants at Ramsey, near Brockville; the settlers of both for some time received aid in provisions, farming implements, &c., but both have failed. At the Highland settlement some 20 or 30 of the original settlers, with their families, still remain; the others have long been dispersed. They began to do better immediately the Government aid was discontinued. Mr. King attributes the greater success of the settlement at Buxton, partly to the fact that, in the first place, the negroes are better axe-men than European emigrants, and so are better fitted to contend with the difficulties attendant upon clearing a heavily timbered country; but mainly to the circumstance that the colony at Buxton, from the beginning, self-supporting. The negroes perfectly understood that they were to depend upon themselves alone, that they were to receive no supplies in money, in food, or in clothing; and thus their pride and self-reliance being excited, they worked with a will not otherwise to have been looked for. If, on the whole, this has been wise and has worked well in one respect, it may have retarded the progress of the settlement, or at least have diminished the result as seen in it; since many of the negroes have found it more profitable, perhaps necessary, to employ part of their time and labour at a distance from Buxton. Now, however, the completion of the saw-mill, the brick-yard, and the pearlshell factory affords a field for labour on the place itself.

Of the fifteen slaves Mr. King originally brought with him three have died, though their places have been taken by children that have since been born in Canada; nine are with him still settled at Buxton; one is married and lives at Chatham; two, a mother and daughter, are at Detroit, but Mr. King has lately received a letter from the daughter, stating that she and her mother are about to return to Buxton. One of the slaves, at that time an old man of 65, received, in consideration of his age, some assistance in putting up his cabin, and we believe in clearing his land. He married at Buxton a woman of suitable years, and has ever since supported her and himself without assistance. I saw his house, his garden, and his corn patch, and everything looked neat and flourishing.

In company with Mr. K. and our companion from Chatham, we walked over a part of the settlement. The place was certainly no realisation of a Utopia, nor did the cabins resemble the neat, white painted houses of a New England village. Everything was new, rude, and rough. To a city-bred man the timber was terrible. I saw one tree left standing by the roadside, at least five feet at the base, and rising straight as an arrow, and scarcely diminished in circumference to an immense height, before it gave off a branch. Most of them were from five to four feet in diameter. The road was merely a lane cut straight through the forest, with the roots of the trees scattered the cabins and clearings of the settlers, the former all built of unburnt logs, set back the prescribed number of feet from the road, and each one surrounded by its kitchen-garden. They were not destitute of all traces of ornament. Over the rude porch in front of the cabin, creepers were frequently trained, and one, covered with a hop-vine in full bearing, looked exceedingly pretty. Some of the gardens boasted flowers, buds, and bright coloured phloxes and poppies and corn-flowers were in contrast with the dark forest, which hemmed us in. We entered the cabin of a fugitive, but two years ago from Kentucky, and who had married, we believe, some time after he had reached the settlement. The cabin was smaller than the model; but the owner, with an eye at a future time of adding to it, had built the chimney double, and a huge brick fire-place stared at us from the outside. Within was the wife, with a couple of small children, her relations, to whom the couple afforded a home. There were chairs, a table, a large chest, and a cooking-stove and its utensils. The family dinner was still on the stove—pork and potatoes while into another vessel, in a quantity of hot bubbling fat, had been thrown some green corn in the ear. The man was absent at work in the brickyard.

Another cabin we entered belonged to a full black—who, fourteen years before, had escaped from Missouri. He had been six years at the settlement, and had twenty-four acres of land fenced and under cultivation, and six more on which the wood had been felled. He had paid up four of his instalments, and owned a wagon, a yoke of oxen, a mare, and two colts. He had four or five children, and his eldest boy, fourteen years old, was reading Virgil!—for him, I fear, unprofitable reading. The day was warm, and the smaller children, like the rest of those we saw, were dressed for warm weather; their legs, feet, and arms were bare, and their garments had apertures about them, which had not been bestowed by the tailor or dressmaker. In the house, besides the ordinary bed and bedding, chairs, table, &c., we found a rocking-chair and a large new safe—a recent importation from Yankee land. On asking for a glass of water, it was brought in a clean tumbler and upon a plate.

Another cabin, belonging to an old settler, was more ambitious. It was larger, with a vine-covered porch: had a hall in the centre and a room on either side; about the halls were hung sundry staring prints, and a carpet, sofa, and a large cooking stove were added to the usual articles of furniture. One feature of all the cabins we must not forget—the huge brick fire-place occupying the best part of one side of the room, and which, with its chimney, bore tokens of the saving fires which blazed in it during the winter.

We saw only a small, and, as we were informed, the newest and least advanced part of the settlement, but our stay in Canada was limited, and despite the hospitable invitation of Mr. King, to remain a few days with him, we felt ourselves compelled to hasten home. We left Buxton with the belief that we had seen one of those rare men who, by a single-minded devotion to one worthy object, not only accomplish great ends but ennoble our common humanity.

THE MANAGEMENT OF BANK DEPOSITS. (From the *Economist*, 16th January.) Now is the time when the public mind is being entirely passed away, that confidence is once more restored, and that the country is embarking afresh in a new career of business, there are some points in connection with our great banking institutions which may be safely, openly, and freely discussed, without any danger of inducing distrust, but with the certainty of much good resulting from their full consideration. Of these, none is so important, and none created so much anxiety in the best-informed circles during the late crisis, as the subject of bank deposits, in the new form which they assume under the development of joint stock banks and the practice of allowing a comparatively high rate of interest upon them. But this subject opens up a very large question, which cannot be fully or usefully discussed without going down to the origin and object of banking institutions, considering the relations in which they stand to the community, and the rules which are absolutely needful to be observed for their prudent management and their own security.

The business of banking, as it is practised in different countries, varies very essentially. In this country, however, it is divided into two parts: First, issuing notes; second, holding deposits. Whether regarded in the light of benefit to the public, profit to the banks, or its general advantage to the commerce of the country, the former branch of business—issuing notes—is by far the least important. The whole of the profit which any country can derive from the issue of notes, is the interest of the coin and the saving of its wear, which is thus economised, and which in the United Kingdom cannot be put at much more than one million a year. Beyond the profit, there is no doubt a great convenience in the use of bank notes as compared with coin. But the great means not only of economising currency, but also of utilising the spare capital of the country and rendering it available for profitable objects, is through the medium of the deposit business of banks, and the extensive facilities which it offers for effecting payments and adjusting claims, by mere transfers from one account to another. It is this branch of business which is by far the most profitable to the banks and infinitely most important to the public at large. The bank notes in circulation in the United Kingdom may be put down at £38,000,000;—the amount of deposits in banks we have no means of ascertaining;—but we know that the few London joint stock banks, the Bank of England, and the Scotch banks, hold deposits to an amount considerably exceeding £100,000,000; and if we make a fair allowance for the London banks other than the joint stock, for the country banks in England (joint stock and private), and for all the banking institutions in Ireland, we shall certainly not overstate the amount of bank deposits in the United Kingdom if we put them down at £200,000,000. But whatever be the nature of the obligations of banks, whether consisting of notes or of deposits, there is this striking distinction between them and the obligations of all other traders, that they are, as a general rule, and indeed necessarily so from their very nature, all payable on demand;—instead of in certain ascertained proportions at future dates, as are the liabilities of merchants. The universal condition upon which bank notes are received, is that they shall be exchanged for coin on demand;—the general and usual condition upon which money is deposited in banks is, that it shall be forthcoming whenever required. But these are conditions differing essentially from those upon which credit is given in any other branch of trade, and which impose upon bankers distinct and separate rules as to the use they make of the confidence thus reposed in them, as compared with any other class of traders, in order that they may be at times in a condition to comply with the terms upon which their obligations are incurred. But it is clear that if this duty were strictly interpreted, a banker would have no means of making a profit by his business, nor would the public derive the legitimate advantage which they may fairly look for from the accumulated balances in the hands of bankers. Experience has, however, shown that, by the observance of certain rules, a fair profit may be obtained by the banker, and a reasonable advantage by the public, without incurring any undue risk on the part of the former. With regard to notes in circulation, the rule is simple and easy. The amount in the hands of the public is habitually reduced to the smallest sum required for the ordinary wants of the country, and varies extremely little from time to time, and what variations take place are generally governed by well-known and periodical causes. Even in times of panic, when general alarms may be most pressed in relation to their general liabilities, the circulation of notes rather increases than diminishes. It is not difficult, therefore, for a banker to determine what amount of reserve of coin it is needful to retain in order to meet any probable demand upon him in respect to his note issues. But it is with regard to the larger and more important part of his liabilities, which consists of deposits, that the real difficulty of banking arises; and especially in the form which they have assumed of late. And it is, therefore, to this branch that we propose to direct our observations.

In the first place, no one can doubt that one of the greatest and most important inventions of civilised and organised society is the institution of banks, by which the great portion of the spare capital of the country is brought together from fragmentary and idle hoards into accumulated stores, and made available for the maintenance of labour and the creation of wealth. A well-regulated banking system may fairly be called the most profitable machine which ever ministered to the promotion of every advantage which man derives from the creation of wealth. The legitimate and original practice of banks in relation to deposits, but which of late has acquired considerable extension, was to receive in deposit from day to day the surplus moneys in the hands of their customers, and to lend as much of their accumulated sum in their hands to other customers as prudence permitted, considering the condition upon which they held it;—and investing other portions in such interest-bearing Government securities, as formed a good reserve in the case of any unusual demand. By this means the whole community derived benefit—the lenders as well as the borrowers; for those who were the lenders at one time were the borrowers at another. The effect was practically an immense addition to the capital of the country for all useful purposes. So long as the deposits of a banker consisted only of such balances, they were, as a whole, subject to but little variation; and they were, therefore, comparatively easily managed. But in the course of time a great development took place in the practice of banking. What was found to be beneficial to individual communities and districts, was found to be equally beneficial to the entire country, taken as one whole. As in particular localities the small balances of individual persons formed a fund applicable to the trade of the district, which would otherwise have been idle, so it was soon found that the balances not required in some districts might be usefully accumulated into a larger general fund, and made applicable to other districts where capital was more required and more valuable. In the rural districts the deposits of bankers accumulated more rapidly than the demand for capital. In order to use them profitably, the bankers entrusted them to bill brokers or money dealers in London, who became the medium through which they were brought into profitable use in the manufacturing, mining, and mercantile districts. What the bankers were in each district—borrowers from one class of customers and lenders to another—the bill brokers or money dealers in London became to the bankers themselves, borrowers from those in rural districts where capital was not so much required, and lenders to those in commercial districts where capital was more required. To some extent the London bankers acted in a similar capacity. But they allowed no interest upon deposits, the sums placed in their hands were usually limited to what it was thought necessary by country bankers to keep at their command in London for ordinary purposes.

The practice, however, introduced of late years, by which joint stock banks have allowed interest upon deposits, at a rate always one per cent. below the bank rate for the time being, has entirely changed the character of their business. Their deposits no longer consist merely of the unused balances of their customers in London and their correspondents in the country from day to day, but they include enormous sums of money placed in their hands by way of investment by the public, and also the reserves of country bankers, on which they rely for meeting any unusual or accidental demand upon them. In point of fact, they have joined to the ordinary business of a banker, what was before the business of the bill broker—receiving money "at call" and bearing interest,—the only difference being that in the case of the bill broker, bills are given for money deposited to be held as a collateral security for its return when required, while in the case of the joint stock bank, the depositor relies only upon the credit of the bank and the unlimited liability of the shareholders.

What we wish to direct special attention to, is the wide difference in the character of these two classes of deposits,—viz., first, those which may fairly be termed ordinary trade deposits; and second, those which come properly under the name of investments, more or less permanent, for the sake of the interest obtained, and money "at call," being the reserve of bankers and others having large sums to pay at uncertain and undefined times. It is quite plain that the character and incidents of these two classes of deposits in the hands of a banker are entirely different. The ordinary deposits in a bank, whether those of private persons or of ordinary traders, are determined by rules which do not lead to much fluctuation in their amount from time to time. In the one case, the depositor keeps only such a sum as he is likely to require for his ordinary expenditure—whatever he has over and above, he invests in some interest-bearing security; and he keeps up his account from time to time from the various sources of his income to such an amount as he reasonably expects to require for current expenditure. So in like manner, but upon a larger scale, in the case of traders, they know and determine what amount, as a rule, it is necessary to keep with their bankers; and with a variation so slight that upon a number of accounts it is an insignificant sum, they retain that amount. The aggregate amount of these two classes of deposits is very unlikely to be materially affected by any crisis that does not bring the bank into discredit, and even in that case they will be the last to be acted upon. But when we consider the character of the new deposit of deposits or "money at call" held by banks, it is very different in many ways. First, the sums are larger and of more importance to the owners; who are more likely, therefore, to take alarm and to demand repayment at the first approach of a crisis. Next, they are sums of money placed in deposit for the sake of interest, not required for current expenditure, or for the daily wants of a business, and as soon as a fall takes place in public securities, they are withdrawn for the purpose of making a purchase at the favourable moment of a crisis. Again, they may form the reserves upon which country bankers rely for meeting any unusual demands upon them; and the latter necessarily therefore resort to them in order to strengthen their position at a critical moment. There are all these and other inducements to withdraw deposits of this character from a bank during a crisis, which do not apply in an appreciable degree to deposits in the ordinary sense. The one class involves little or no state of the money market, whatever may be the state of the money market, the other exposes a bank to heavy demands upon it from a variety of causes at a moment it is the least able to bear them.

The distinction between these two classes of liabilities on the part of banks does not, however, so much point to any objection to either, as to the difference of terms and conditions upon which the two descriptions of deposits should be received;—a difference which to some extent has been already acknowledged in practice and acted upon. As in all other trades, no principle of banking can be for the interests of the country that does not include reasonable security and profit to those engaged in it. With regard to deposits generally, a bank can secure itself only in one of two ways:—First, it may retain a large portion of its deposits as an unemployed reserve, so as to make itself under any circumstances secure; or it may require such a notice for the repayment of deposits, as to enable it to realise without great loss the securities in which they are invested, or allow the maturity of current bills of exchange. But it is plain that the first plan—that of retaining a large reserve—must deprive the banker of the means of paying interest to the depositor, and that the second deprives the depositor of the command of his money at the moment he requires it. But these are results necessarily arising out of the very nature of the transactions. It is incompatible with prudent and safe management for a banker to pay interest upon deposits which, being payable on demand, ought to be represented by a large unemployed reserve:—it is equally incompatible with prudent and safe management for a banker to undertake to pay without notice extensive deposits upon which he allows interest, and in order to pay which, he must necessarily employ such deposits nearly, if not quite, to their full amount. There is no security for a banker, except either in a very large unemployed reserve, or in sufficient notice to enable him to dispose of securities. But this brings us to the conclusion, that no banker is justified in holding deposits payable on demand without also holding such a reserve as must take away the power of paying interest, or in undertaking to pay large sums on demand for which he allows a large rate of interest, and in order to pay which he must invest nearly the whole of the amount.

No doubt the plan adopted by some banks meets the objections which we have stated. The customer of a bank has two accounts:—one, a drawing account, upon which he operates from day to day, and with regard to which the amount standing at it, is always payable on demand, but upon which he receives no interest; and another, a deposit account, upon which he receives interest, but which he cannot draw upon without a notice agreed upon. One account can, however, always be made to aid the other, and only in accordance with the terms named. Money may be transferred from the drawing to the deposit account at any time, but from the deposit to the drawing account only by giving the required notice. An arrangement of this nature is equally advantageous to the public and to the banker. If interest is allowed upon all accounts without discrimination, then it must either be at a much lower rate, or the bank must be placed in great jeopardy in the event of a panic, and must be compelled suddenly to withhold the ordinary accommodation to its customers:—if, on the other hand, a bank allows no interest upon deposits payable on demand, their amount will always be kept at the lowest point that the usual wants of its customers require, and in the event of a panic will lead to no sensible demand upon it, while the interest allowed upon such deposits placed under reasonable notice will be larger, and the absence of sudden pressure on the bank during a crisis will enable it to continue to its customers the ordinary facilities, and thus prevent the very common aggravation of periods of panic and alarm. There is no doubt that the passion on the part of joint stock banks for paying large dividends has led, in many instances, to a total disregard of all those obvious distinctions and the means of meeting them:—has induced them, in too many instances to offer interest on current deposits payable on demand, which they could not pay without sacrificing the reserve necessary to protect such obligations, and has induced them to accept large amounts of deposits at large rates of interest, payable "at call," and which interest they could only pay by employing them up to the last shilling, and too frequently in doubtful securities. No doubt deposits of any kind will not be offered to banks, unless the public have the money to spare and require a safe investment, or some other object, to which it is not likely to find means of ready employment through some channel at home, would find its way into some foreign speculation of a doubtful and dangerous character. We cannot, therefore, join those who appear to consider it a fault in banking that the deposits should be of a large amount. On the contrary, it only shows how such banks accomplish their legitimate object of collecting in aggregate masses the spare capital of one class in order to make it useful to another and profitable to all; but it is absolutely necessary that it should be clearly recognised as a first principle in our extended banking, that, with regard to deposits payable "at call," so large a reserve should be held, as to render it safe to issue deposits with safe banking to pay interest on such deposits; and that with regard to deposits upon which interest is paid, it is necessary to employ so large a portion of them, to enable the banker to pay it that it is equally necessary to require such deposits to be made compatible with safe banking to undertake to repay such deposits "at call," or without such fair notice as may be agreed upon. With a strict observance of these two rules, it is no matter how large bank deposits may become; without it they must always be the object of well-founded and grave anxiety.

ARMY PATRONAGE.

(From the *United Service Gazette*, 16th January.)

A TERRIBLE apprehension appears to have seized upon the East India Company, their friends, admirers, and servants, that if India, "the empire of the middle classes," as Mr. H. M. Parker fondly calls it, be handed over to, or appropriated by, the Crown, the "Services" will become the vehicle of political jobbery. "The patronage, civil and military," say the claimants, "will devolve upon the Government, and we shall henceforth see all the good places in the hands of the aristocracy, or the members of Parliament who sustain a feeble Ministry."

We suppose it will be allowed that the past and the present are good guarantees for the future. No one would venture to predict a perversion by the existing authorities of the additional power that is likely to devolve upon them, unless they had been accustomed to interested purposes. It must be from the actual condition of the public service of Great Britain that the patrons of the dying Company infer the future treatment of the service of India.

It neither accords with our business nor our opportunities to examine minutely the state of the civil service of the Crown. There are others more capable and better disposed to go into that part of the question. The Army alone concerns us, and we should be unmindful of our duty if we manifested any indifference to the manner in which it is officered, either with reference to its actual condition, or to the large increase of patronage which must devolve upon the Horse Guards if the Indian portion of the

forces of Great Britain be transferred to the control and management of that department. We have, therefore, looked very carefully into the composition of the commissioned part of the Army, and the results of the enquiry we have instituted satisfy the most bigoted radical and the most vehement champion of the E. I. Company, that, considering the popularity of the military profession and the wide field it opens to the ambition of the first people in the country, there is a ridiculously small proportion of the aristocracy in the British Army. It is emphatically "the Army of the middle classes." Putting aside the colonels of regiments who are, for the most part, very distinguished Generals, and who have earned their titles and positions in the field, there are absolutely not more than one hundred and forty-five titled persons (chiefly "Honourables," "younger sons of younger brothers") in the whole of the British Cavalry and Infantry, more than one-third of them being Guardsmen! One hundred and forty-five members of the nobility in an Army containing upwards of five thousand officers! Let us enter a little into detail. In the Household Cavalry there are twenty-one titled officers, and fifty-five without any "handle to their names." In the 1st Dragoon Guards there is a baronet, while the 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th Regiments are composed entirely of the middle classes. The seventeen Regiments of Dragoons and Light Dragoons have but fourteen sprigs of nobility among them. The Foot Guards number, as we have said, some fifty. In the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd Regiments of the Line there are four—in the 5th and 6th, none; in the 7th Fusiliers, but one; none whatever in the 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th. The 13th Light Infantry boasts of two titled officers. The 14th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 18th, and 19th, are thoroughly plebeian. The four next Regiments have four "Honourables," and one Baronet amongst them. The nine next regiments are officered entirely from the people, so are the 34th, 35th, 36th, 37th, 38th, 40th, and 41st; but, as a set-off, the 33rd, 38th, 42nd, 43rd, and 44th have an "aristocrat" apiece. The same proportion occurs in the rest of the army. From the 45th to the 49th—not even an "Honorable" is to be found. The "ditty Half Hundred" has one "Honourable," ditto the 51st. There are two in the 52nd and 53rd, and none in the 54th, 55th, 56th, 57th, 58th, and 59th. The remaining forty-one regiments of infantry contain among them but twenty-three members of noble families, and the Rifle Brigade, a pet regiment, consisting of four battalions, numbers but ten Lords and Honourables! As for the Royal Artillery, Engineers, and Militia, they count but four of the noblesse out of more than 1000 officers.

From this it must be clear that the notion entertained of the aristocratic appropriation of the military patronage is a perfect delusion. Only one-thirtieth part of the Army is assigned to the oligarchical branch of British society—the rest is in the hands of those very middle classes whence the vaunted proteges of the East India Company have been drawn. Now let us see how the patronage has been distributed by the East India Directors. From a return before us it appears that more than one-half of the appointments have been annually given to the sons of officers, Civil and Military, chaplains, surgeons, &c., the greater portion of whom, we may presume, were the old friends of the dispensers of commissions. The other half have been disposed of to the sons of officers in the Royal Army, merchants, bankers, clergymen, professional men, tradesmen, &c., many of whom were holders of East India Stock, or connected with proprietors, to whom the Directors were indebted for their "most sweet voices" at election time. Very few members of the nobility appear among them, for the principal reason that the expectation of estates and titles have had but small inclination to expatriate themselves entirely, and nothing to offer the East India Directors in exchange for the good things in their gift. It is quite true that many come out very creditably in great emergencies, but to establish a comparison between these gallant men and the Queen's Officers who have distinguished themselves in India, is simply unfair, seeing that all the opportunities have been to the former. While the Company's Officer has monopolised the Staff and political appointments, which afforded scope for distinction, the Queen's Officer has been restrained within the limits of regimental duty. The Company's officers have been for many years past upwards of 6000 in number—the Queen's officers in India have rarely reached 1000. We contend therefore that all the inferences which have been drawn to the glorification of the East India service—all the curmishes in which writers have indulged, that the patronage in ministerial hands would be abused, worse than that of the East India Directors has been abused, are utterly false and unfounded, of self-interest and prejudice and partiality, or of self-interest and disappointment.

But independently of the established proofs of the distinguished application of their powers by the authorities at the Horse Guards, a great reason exists for the transfer of the patronage from the East India Directors to the Crown—the exercise of it in their case being entirely personal, while that of the officers of the Crown is altogether, or very nearly, public. The East India Directors, as a body, take no cognisance of merit. The son of a deserving soldier might petition in vain for a cadetship: the old soldier himself would find no "Department" prepared to recognise his claims to an appointment for his child. Unless some one Director, stepping out from the crowd and putting aside his individual interest or predilections, should give the boy a nomination, he has not a chance. It is otherwise at the Horse Guards. The supreme authority, H. R. H. the Commander-in-Chief, never refuses an appeal founded on good service or individual merit. Lord Hardinge was equally generous, and we dare say, that every general officer placed at the head of the army would favour the claims of service. "What is everybody's business is nobody's business," and under this plea the Directors have escaped the fulfilment of a duty that every generous mind would have accepted with ardour.

RACE HORSES.—Mr. Burt has just imported by the Bengal, from Calcutta and Sydney, a couple of magnificent racers, of high pedigree, "3-lim" and "Mountain Maid." We are sorry to hear that Mr. Burt, the enterprising importer of these fine thoroughbred horses, has, as yet, met with no offer commensurate with the value of these fine animals. Folks in Ceylon have for years past been calling out for serviceable animals for the road and the course, but now that they have the opportunity of obtaining such magnificent horses, we understand that Mr. Burt has been offered such miserable prices that he is compelled to take them to a better market. We are sorry to see this, as it will offer no inducement to any spirited importer who desires to supply the market of Ceylon with horses of high caste.—*Ceylon Times*, 9th February.

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ARMY PATRONAGE.

(From the *United Service Gazette*, 16th January.)

A TERRIBLE apprehension appears to have seized upon the East India Company, their friends, admirers, and servants, that if India, "the empire of the middle classes," as Mr. H. M. Parker fondly calls it, be handed over to, or appropriated by, the Crown, the "Services" will become the vehicle of political jobbery. "The patronage, civil and military," say the claimants, "will devolve upon the Government, and we shall henceforth see all the good places in the hands of the aristocracy, or the members of Parliament who sustain a feeble Ministry."

We suppose it will be allowed that the past and the present are good guarantees for the future. No one would venture to

